DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 160 271 RC 010 744

AUTHOR Sachsenmeier, Peter, Ed.; And Others
TITLE Basic Education: Reflections on Participatory Curriculum Development and Planning.
INSTITUTION German Foundation for International Development, Bonn (West Germany).
PUB DATE 78
NOTE 53p.; Not available in hard copy due to the extensive use of colored paper

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Adult Education; Community Education; *Continuous Learning; *Curriculum Development; Curriculum Evaluation; *Decentralization; *Developing Nations; Development; *Educational Alternatives; Educational Planning; Foreign Countries; Nonformal Education; *Participant Involvement; Primary Education; Rural Areas; Teacher Role
IDENTIFIERS *Basic Education; Kenya; Learning Needs; Tanzania; Uganda

ABSTRACT

Basic education as the first stage of lifelong education is emerging as a significant alternative to traditional education, especially for rural populations in Third World countries. Basic education is a set of interrelated ideas: community orientation of education, integration of formal, nonformal, and informal learning into lifelong learning, stress on practical skills, involvement of the total population, and overcoming traditional subject orientation of curriculum. Education, an integral part of national development, is more effective when based on well-defined learning needs, and such a curriculum requires both horizontal and vertical integration within a country. Implications for curriculum planners include: concentration on basic needs (health, food, functional literacy); attitude change toward work and development; emphasis on integration of formal/nonformal education; implementation of a flexible, lifelong, lifewide curriculum encompassing needs identification, curriculum control, evaluation, levels of responsibility; new approach to teacher education, teacher role/function; alternative teaching/learning patterns; examination systems reflecting identified learning needs. Four case studies of formal and nonformal education in East Africa illustrate implications of participatory curriculum development and planning policies for educational planners, curriculum developers, and researchers. (SS)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED160271

REPORT

DEUTSCHE STIFTUNG FÜR INTERNATIONALE ENTWICKLUNG

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Wolfgang Gmelin

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND USERS OF THE ERIC SYSTEM."

BASIC EDUCATION: REFLECTIONS ON PARTICIPATORY CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND PLANNING

EDITED BY

PETER SACHSENMEIER

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

GERMAN FOUNDATION FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
1978

RC 010744

2

ABT. II ERZIEHUNG, WISSENSCHAFT UND DOKUMENTATION
53 BONN 1 · SIMROCKSTRASSE 1 · TELEFON 21041 – 46

GERMAN FOUNDATION FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT · FONDATION ALLEMANDE POUR LE DEVELOPPEMENT INTERNATIONAL · FUNDACION ALEMANA PARA EL DESARROLLO INTERNACIONAL

CONTENT

Editorial 1

Curriculum and Educational Development in Third World Countries
Peter Sachsenmeier 3

Four Case Studies
Josef Müller 23

Basic Education Bibliography
Annemarie Welzel 47

EDITORIAL

This small publication reflects some of the work carried out within the Basic Education Sections of the Education and Science Division of the German Foundation for international Development, Bonn.

The paper by Peter Sachsenmeier relates curriculum and educational development to various discernible global strategies for educational reform, and emphasizes the significance of the concept of Basic Education as a first stage of lifelong education. In this context, learning needs in rural areas are given particular attention. On the basis of various studies undertaken recently, the implications of participatory curriculum development and planning policies are analysed, and spelled out for different target groups, including educational planners, curriculum developers, and researchers.

This is substantiated with four case studies of innovative projects briefly described and analysed by Josef Müller. These case studies originated in a project involving four case study teams in three East African countries, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, for which he was responsible from the side of the German Foundation for international Development. The full length case studies, it is hoped, will be available later this year in revised und updated versions; the names of the African case study authors have been indicated in the main body of the text.

As a guide to further reading, a short Basic Education Bibliography of books available in the Education library of the German Foundation for International Development, and compiled by Annemarie Welzel, has been included.

CURRICULUM AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES

BY

PETER SACHSENMEIER

page 2 blank.

Peter Sachsenmeier

CURRICULUM AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES

"The most important thing is for us to stop being little missionaries' boys, professing other people's ideologies. We must ask ourselves whose philosophies we are teaching and in whose interest".
Okot p'Bitek, Sunday Nation (Kenya), 18 December 1977

Politicians, educational planners and others concerned with education in the Third World countries are increasingly and often painfully becoming aware that investment in traditional education (as inherited from the former colonial masters) does not yield the anticipated immediate or even longer-term results. With the realization that poor developing countries are in no position financially and resourcewise to furnish their rapidly growing populations with formal instruction, the quest is on for alternatives to traditional education.

World Trends

Recently, Philip H. Coombs reviewed some of the major trends in world education since the publication, ten years ago, of his important book, "The World Educational Crisis" (Coombs, 1977). In his retrospective analysis, he still saw the most fundamental cause for the inflexibility and inertia of present educational systems

> "in their overpowering tendency to cling to the familiar, and all the other paraphernalia of the traditional system in the face of great changes in the composition, needs and life prospects of their expanding clientele. The crisis, in a nutshell, was a crisis of growing maladjustment between traditionbound educational systems and the rapidly changing world around them" (p. 60).

page 4 blank.

Many others concerned with education nationally or internationally, but especially in countries of the Third World, also realized at the beginning of the 1970s that this situation demanded a complete rethinking of existing educational provision not in terms of expanding numbers, but in terms of a qualitative "educational revolution". Some critics argued that elements of the present system, in many countries, escalate the cost of schooling too much, and that education is often defined solely in terms of institutionalization, professionalization, and bureaucratization. At the same time, they claim, the institutions of education deny their services to the majorities they pretend to serve, and help to perpetuate the notion of "failure" by building it into the system. The radical school critics feel especially justified in their criticism since

- compensatory education programmes have not made disadvantaged minorities less disadvantaged (e.g. "Headstart" in the USA);

- the myth of equality through schools, i.e. in the concept of democratization through schools systems, has proved to be largely unreal, especially when political and economic structures are left intact which inhibit democratization;

- the school, by providing a classification and labelling system (the less schooled are the less "developed"; both applicable to countries and individuals!) cannot alone create the conditions and provide the prerequisites for change and more equal societies.

Some of the present strategies suggested for educational reform, or revolution, include those advocated by Julius Nyerere, Illich, Freire, as well as analysts from First World countries, but also international bodies concerned

with education internationally, such as UNESCO and the World Bank.

Arising from a number of reports and investigations, but more particularly from a World Bank report in 1974 (IBRD, 1974; Phillips, 1974) the concept of Basic Education as the first stage in a process of Lifelong Education has been much courted and discussed in the last five years. In the 1974 World Bank Report, we find an increasing emphasis and concern, nationally and internationally, towards the growing social, educational and economic gaps within societies, and the observable emergence and enrichment of the fortunate few. Two years earlier, in 1972, the socalled International Commission on Education, convened by UNESCO, and better known, by the name of its chairman, as the Faure Commission, had published its much coveted and widely acclaimed and accepted report, "Learning to be" (Faure et al.,1972). The Faure report advocated lifelong education as the "master principle" of education. Some of its more important statements include the notions that schooling is just a part of education, a contributory part; that education, in view of current changes, can no longer afford to be time-bound, age, stage, and place bound, and that it is a natural process going on throughout life; that there are many paths to learning of which some may be more efficient or appropriate than others; also, that methods, material and delivery systems could and should be varied in accordance with the intended purposes and the means available.

Both these reports have to be seen against the realization that current school programmes are neither adequate or appropriate to the real needs of the population, nor indeed attainable within current levels of financial, human and material resources and in the face of mounting schools' populations, the needs and the demands of the unschooled, and in particular the needs of the rural populations of the Third World (cf.Sachsenmeier, 1977).

Trends in Africa

Realizing the scope of problems in educational development and more specifically in the African context, the Conference of African Ministers of Education (UNESCO 1976) spelled out a number of important considerations and recommendations. We shall be especially concerned with recommendation Nr.14. Since this recommendation has since exerted considerable influence on education policies in African countries, and has also had its effect on the activities of international and national aid agencies, it seems only appropriate to discuss it in greater length:

In view of the probability that many African countries may not be able to introduce universal primary education in the foreseeable future, and in view of high drop-out rates in primary education, while at the same time upholding certain educational credos, namely

- that adult education has the ability of coping with disadvantaged groups;

- that education should be for the masses;

- that basic education should be the first stage of life-long education, and that basic education might contribute towards the solution of the problems of disadvantaged groups;

- that true development has to take account of cultural and scientific aspects and the active mobilization of all the people,

- the Conference of Ministers of Education provided a number of useful guidelines

Especially important in the present context is the strong

support of the conference for "basic education as the best means of providing mass education".

In order to lend support to the concept of basic education, the conference of African Ministers of Education urged the African Member States not only to clearly define their basic education policies, but also

- to consider school education and non-formal education activities as complementary elements in an overall national effort to ensure each member of the society equal educational opportunities;

- to structure basic educational programmes in such a way as to allow for mobility between the school systems and non-formal educational activities;

- to consider the establishment of national councils or boards for non-formal education and to establish structures within their Ministries of Education for the purpose of promoting non-formal education as an integral part of national education as a whole;

- to set up governmental machinery to co-ordinate all forms of education and instruction which contribute to the development of basic education for all;

- to mobilize all available resources for the development of non-formal education activities;

- to make a determined effort to promote studies leading to the preparation and formulation of diversified strategies and policies thereby rendering it possible to optimize the efficiency and economic viability of the educational system in its quantitative and qualitative aspects;

- to commit themselves resolutely to the eradication of illiteracy among the masses of the people so as to make it easier for them to receive training and further training in their national language in order that they may be able to participate more effectively in development and in raising their own standard of living, taking for this purpose the necessary measures to mobilize all available development agencies, etc.;

- to provide those adults who have received a basic formal education with facilities for continuing education in all the fields of activity which will enable them to play a more effective part in national development programmes;

- to mobilize the mass media so as to make them play a greater part in the raising of the cultural level of the nation.

In this recommendation, the conference has clearly indicated some of the more apparent difficulties of the approach to education inherited from the former colonial powers, especially the fact that primary education cannot be provided for all. Complementary systems have to be sought for, and integrated with the traditional, formal delivery systems.

Basic Education: Towards a Definition

Basic Education is the label attached to an alternative to traditional education.
The form has been used with various connotations, e.g. as synonymous with pre-school education in Jamaica, or as denoting the compulsory school cycle, e.g. in Zambia, or as synomymous with a shorter than traditional cycle of education (Ethiopia) or as an alternative system seperated from conventional primary school, or as approach especially designed for rural areas (India), or as is the case in

Tanzania, as a system for the acquisition of basic skills for both young and old, both in and out of school, etc.

However, it is important to stress that basic education is not a stringent concept but rather a set of interrelated ideas.
Some of these are:

- community orientation of education;

- integration of formal, non-formal and informal learning recognized as part of a lifelong learning process with schooling just a contributing part of education;

- stress on the necessity for learners to acquire practical skills, including those of "learning how to learn";

- involving of all kinds of clientele, including children, youths and adults, in various kinds of formal as well as non-formal activities;

- and finally, overcoming the subject-orientation of traditional syllabi and curricula.

Learning needs

In the context of the basic education debate, the concept by Coombs and others of "minimum learning needs" appears to be highly relevant for the following reasons:
It is more and more accepted that education is not an independent phenomenon, or an end in itself but that it has an important supporting role to play in national development in Third World countries, and more especially in the transformation of the rural areas.

Pertinent questions arise: What is national/rural development?

What is its implications: social political, economic, cultural, personal? How could education play its role more effectively? Are there problems of the relevance of education to the needs/demands/aspirations of rural areas?

The conclusion to be drawn from such questions is, among others, that if education is based on well defined learning needs, it is likely to be more effective. Further to the important statement in this debate, namely that education is an essential ingredient, and an important partner in the overall development process, some preliminary observations can be made:

- Learning needs may be local, regional, national or universal.

- Newly required competencies, i.e. skills for "self help", give rise to new national learning needs (e.g.in Tanzania).

- National learning needs are often formulated and laid down but there exists a certain difficulty in assessing and taking into account local and regional learning needs.

Need, in this context, implies a gap between existing competencies inadequate for new developments.

Participation has to be one of the key elements in an educational strategy oriented towards basic needs not only the part of officials, but also of the community and of individuals needs to be taken into account.

There are two important other structural principles in this concept.

The first of them is decentralization. When talking about decentralization we have in mind in particular decentrali-

zation or differentiation as an answer to local needs. It appears from current evidence that national curriculum development centers can do great harm if they not take into account local differences. But what are our concrete experiences?

Our insight into the deficiencies and the lack of co-ordination in certain projects makes us also stress the second principle, that of horizontal and vertical integration. Vertical integration in this sense means communication and dialogue among local, regional and national levels. Horizontal integration means that within the overall process of development there has to be an integration with agricultural development, with self-help, with the political party, the welfare department, the health department etc. How do we achieve this? Who initiates this? Do we have any examples of integration in case studies?

Case Studies

In 1977, an international meeting in Berlin (West) entitled "Learning needs in rural ares", undertaken by the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in collaboration with the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) and involving the active cooperation of African local case study teams as well as of the African Curriculum Organization (ACO), has attempted to contribute to a clearer understanding of how to identify and fulfil learning needs.

The framework for the four case studies involved had been set at a meeting in Nairobi in 1976. The case studies dealt with innovative projects in three East African countries, namely Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. Two of the projects are located at school level, two are specifically non-formal. The project case studies have been reported in some detail

in German, by Dr. Josef Müller (1977) of the German Foundation for International Development, Bonn; a comprehensive research report is currently being written by Dr.R.H.Dave of the International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris, to be published at the end of 1978, or early in 1979.

Other aims of the IIEP/DSE/ACO project were finding ways of identifying those strategic points of particular importance to educational planners, curriculum developers and researchers which have to be taken into account when attempting to create more needs-oriented educational structures, systems, procedures and techniques.

Since a short description of the case studies is enclosed in this publication,(a limited number of seperate copies is also obtainable from DSE), the present author will only present some major findings in the areas of planning and curriculum development, as well as some major implications for research.

A new approach to curriculum development

The learning needs approach has many implications for curriculum development. Some of these implications and conclusions were:

- Curriculum planners should concentrate their attention on basic needs, e.g. health, food, functional literacy, attitude change towards work and development.

- They should emphasize strongly the necessity to integrate formal and non-formal education in curriculum development.

- A lifelong and lifewide strategy and structure should be found taking into account the process of identification of needs, the control of curriculum and its evaluation

at national, regional and local levels and the assignment of responsibilities and limitations (including financial responsibility!) to each level. At the same time, such structures should facilitate coordination both horizontally and vertically, and should be sufficiently flexible to respond to changes at central, regional, and local levels.

- In the implementation strategy for curricula, there is a need to include planning of a new approach to teacher education, as well as a new definition of the role and function of the teacher.

- The planning of the content of education as well as the methods used in the teaching/learning process should allow for a number of alternative patterns.

- Examination systems for formal education need to reflect identified learning needs. This implies both more cohesion in the design of public exams, and some measure of decentralization, so that local curricula may be assessed locally.

Curriculum Integration

Curriculum Integration has to occur on a number of levels. Above of all, there is an obvious need to remedy the discrepancy between what one author, Hugh Hawes (1978) has called the "official curriculum" and the "actual curriculum in schools". It appears that - and this coincides with the present author's impressions and experiences - that the remoter schools are from the metropolis, the more difficult their material condition becomes, and the less able they become in fulfilling what central planners and administrators expect of them.

A review of the curriculum will also have to look critically at some of the more unquestioned remnants of colonial times; i.e. anecdotally speaking,

- the three year term
- the six or seven year cycle of formal schooling
- the age five or six entry
- the forty minute period
- etc., not to forget the school cap.

The question of the language of instruction will have to be dealt with much more functionally, too.

However, already now there are some observable trends towards an integration of subject areas, including:

- Cautious and sensible attempts to introduce more measure of integration of programmes at low primary level, which have led to most English speaking countries' having some useful and successful project in cooperative teaching at this level.

- The design of materials based on one subject discipline but specifically planned to feed across the curriculum, e.g. the lower primary booklets produced by the Science Education Programme for Africa (SEPA) are a prototype for developing basic scientific and mathematical skills across subject boundaries. Various units, such as construction, Water, Dry Sand and others are being used and adapted widely in Language, Social Studies, Science and Mathematics Syllabi.

- The formal integration of subjects hitherto taught seperately into new programmes with new names; e.g. Science syllabi may include materials from the former subjects General Science, Nature Study, Rural Science, and Health

Education; wheras Social Study might subsume History, Geography, and Civics.

- Development of a restricted number of units of study based on themes across the curriculum; e.g. the 6 week unit on Transport in Lesotho, or the School Garden unit in Botswana.

How Planning can Help

In view of the sometimes disappointing results of the case studies presented at the above meeting, certain implications of the learning needs approach for planning, curriculum development and research as well as the implementation of development projects were formulated. If active participation of local people is desired (and the experience of the case studies presented showed that without this the projects were doomed to failure), a number of conditions have to be fulfilled:

- Planning should follow an evolutionary model which, within an open process, lets the details evolve with experience and provides increasing opportunities for participants to exert more control.

- To be effective, participants must have the necessary tools especially access to information.

- Planners must learn to shift from a role of planning for others to one of helping others plan for themselves;

- Planners need to develop a decentralized structure with different planning processes for different levels in the structure.

- Planning should create a potential for future development

through the creation of programme planning, implementation and evaluation skills in the local citizens as an outcome of participation. Planning models for innovative pilot projects must provide the flexibility and tolerance for experimentation, and above all, sufficient time for the emergence of workable procedures.

Future Research

Thoughts on research and research cooperation are necessarily preliminary, since some of the prerequesites for relevant undertakings and projects may not be obtainable, e.g. expertise, manpower and finance. For some of the suggestions, the present author is indebted to Prof. E.A. Yoloye, of the University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

In general, the case studies of the ACO/IIEP/DSE project and others have generated some hypotheses which need to be tested by more systematic research; for example:

- That the effectiveness of projects involving integration of school with community, formal with non-formal education, etc. is positively related to the existence of appropriate organizational infrastructure within the community.

- The effectiveness of participatory implementation of an educational project is positively related to the degree of participatory planning of the project.

- Integration of school with community reduces the tendency of urban rural migration of school leavers and increases the tendency to take up occupations in rural areas.

- Effectiveness of participatory planning and participatory implementation of projects is related to specific

characteristics of the participants , e.g. social positions in the community and level of education.

Exploratory Studies may include

- Research into alternative techniques of attitude development through the curriculum.

- Tracer studies of graduates of rural education/development projects with a view to feeding information back to curriculum developers.

Strategies for Research

It is also important to consider possible strategies for research. Designing research studies to cover the identified areas requires considerable planning. It has repeatedly been suggested at the ACO/IIEP/DSE meeting that this be a co-operative effort involving research institutions in Africa as well as outside Africa. An important suggestion for German-African collaboration has recently been put forward by Prof. D. Goldschmidt of the Max-Planck Institute for Educational Research, Berlin (1977). Three broad steps are needed for such cooperation:

- Identification and collection of existing literature related to the area of research. Such review of literature may help in suggesting models for research. Identification and collection of literature should be done by the various cooperating research institutions.

- A research planning conference is needed so that participating researchers can work out specific research designs and data collection procedures.

- Execution of research which will include data collection,

analysis and reporting.

This step would probably necessitate one or two conferences for joint analysis and overall consideration of the research findings.

Outlook

Basic Education cannot only be looked at from within, so to speak, but the role of education itself in the development of Thrid World countries has to be defined anew, and much more realistically. From our discussion of the concept of Basic Education, it has become quite clear that education can no longer be seen as a value per se for the advancement and multisided development of the masses in Third World Countries. At the same time, and in view of similar difficulties in educational development in the countries of the Northern Himisphere, experiences gained in Third World countries may provide helpful guidelines and concrete support for educational innovations, planning, curriculum development and research there, as well as for the assessment of the relationship between societal systems and their various socializing agencies in the "more developed" countries, and possible remedial strategies.

B I B L I O G R A P H Y

COOMBS, P.H.: The World Educational Crisis. A System Analysis. Oxford University Press: London, 1968

COOMBS, P.H.: A Fresh Look at the World Educational Crisis. Keynote Address. In: Commonwealth Secretariat: Report of the Seventh Commonwealth Education Conference, Accra, Ghana, 9 - 18 March, 1977

FAURE, E. et al.: Learning to Be: The world of education today and tomorrow. Harrap: London, 1972

GOBLE, N.M.:PORTER, J.F.: The Changing Role of the Teacher. International Perspectives. UNESCO/IBE: Paris, 1977

GOLDSCHMIDT, D.: African-German Collaboration in Education Research. In: Peter Sachsenmeier (ed):African-German Collaboration in Educational Research and Planning. German Foundation for International Development: Bonn, 1978 (DOK 945 A/a)

HAWES, H.W.R.:Lifelong Education, Schools and Curricula in Developing Countries. Unesco Institute for Education: Hamburg; German Foundation for International Development (DSE): Bonn, 1975

HAWES, H.W.R. with Andrey Aarons, John Craft, Colette Hawes: Curriculum and Reality in African Primary Schools. Longman: London, 1978 (in press)

IBE (International Bureau of Education): Final Report of the International Conference on Education.35th session. Geneva, August 27 - September 4, 1975. IBE: Geneva, 1975

IBRD (ed): Education. Sector Working Paper, IBRD: Washington, D.C., 1974

KALUGULA, C.; SACHSENMEIER, Peter (eds): Techniques of Curriculum Development. Institute of Education, Tanzania: Dar-es-Salaam, 1978 (in press)

MÜLLER, Josef:Ansätze zur Grunderziehung in Entwicklungsländern. Fallstudien aus Ostafrika. Deutsche Stiftung für Internationale Entwicklung: Bonn, 1977 (DOK 932 B)

NYERERE, Julius: Education for Self-Reliance. In: Ujamaa. Essays on Socialism. Oxford University Press: London, 1968

PHILLIPS, Herbert Moore: Basic Education - A World Challenge. Measures and Innovations for Children and Youth in Developing Countries. London, New York: Wiley, 1975

SACHSENMEIER, Peter: Basic Education - Learning Needs in Rural Areals. In: Development and Cooperation (D+C). Contribution to Development Policy, No 5/1977, pp. 28,29

SACHSENMEIER, Peter: The Training of Educational Personnel within the Framework of Lifelong Education, UNESCO:Paris, 1978

UNESCO; ECA; OAU: Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States. Lagos (Nigeria), 27 January - 4 February 1976. FINAL REPORT. UNESCO: Paris, 1976

FOUR CASE STUDIES

Josef Müller

Four case studies[1/] were prepared within the framework of a research project at a Seminar held in Nairobi from 29 November to 5 December 1976 and were subsequently presented in provisional form[2/] at a second Seminar held in Berlin (West) from 22 to 31 August 1977. The case studies are concerned with the East African countries Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda and deal with reform programmes at pilot project level. In two of the case studies it is the school itself which forms the point of departure and the centre of activities. In the other two cases, the projects have to date taken place outside the school. Although it was intended in the original concept that a direct link with the schools be established, it is significant that this has to date not been achieved.

1/ A fifth case study begun on the comprehensive reform of primary education in both anglophone provinces of the Cameroon had to be abandoned. Since then a comprehensive report on the subject has been published (in limited edition), namely, I.P.A.R.-Buea, Report on the Reform of Primary Education, 1977.

2/ It is expected that the final research report will be published by IIEP at the end of 1978.

pages 23 and 24 blank

1. The Namutamba Project (Uganda)

The origins of the Namutamba Project date back to a UNESCO Recommendation of 1967. For this reason UNESCO experts co-operated until 1972 in the conceptualization and implementation of the project. Located at a distance of 60 km from Kampala and within the catchment area of the Namutamba teacher training institute, the project was conceived as a pilot project and focussed from the outset principally on problems relating to primary school curricula, and in particular on the reform of natural science instruction.

The aims of the project are as follows: firstly, the promotion of integrated rural development and thereby the improvement of living conditions in rural areas, and, secondly, the reform of the primary school curriculum and thereby the promotion of an environment-oriented basic education.

Within the framework of curriculum development essentially practical forms of natural science instruction were introduced: observation of animals in their natural surroundings, dissection and preservation of plants and insects, collection of minerals, experiment-oriented physics instruction. Practical exercises were accorded greater importance than theory in the classroom.

In the context of rural development the project focussed on the transition from a subsistence economy to market-oriented production, courses on hygiene, nutrition, and health, and literacy schemes.

The pilot project was given pedagogic support from the teacher training institute in the catchment area of which the first school was located.

Within a relatively short time it was possible to win the interest of the parents and the village elders in the project. Groups of young people came to the school and

requested instruction during the afternoons. They were offered instruction twice weekly. In this way the primary school project broadened into a basic education project --a development which was less the consequence of pretentious planning than that of needs-oriented alignment. The school was able to persuade the parents to act as "teaching staff," in the first instance in order to be able to implement the environmental and cultural aspects of the project. The parents of the pupils gave instruction primarily in crafts and agriculture and familiarized the pupils with traditional music and dances. By including adults and juveniles in the instruction it was considerably easier to implement the occupation-oriented aspects of the project than with younger schoolchildren of predominantly the lower and intermediate primary school classes. It was possible to provide practical instruction in animal rearing (pigs, cattle, rabbits, bees), horticulture and crop growing and appropriate rural technology (construction of storage barns, procurement of water, improvement of housing construction and domestic equipment).

The juveniles and their parents became aware of the practical sense of the experimental school. Concurrently the expectations which the community placed in the school gradually changed. When asked to state their aspirations as regards future occupation, 37 percent of the young people chose agriculture, 14 percent automobile mechanics, 14 percent teaching, and 10 percent nursing. Only one percent wanted to become masons. The parents had somewhat different expectations. Only 22 percent wanted their children to work in agriculture, and only three percent chose automobile mechanics. Evidently none saw the purpose of the nursing profession, for it was not chosen at all. However, 24 percent of the parents wanted their sons to become masons. It is evident that the parents see the use of "rural technology" in somewhat more direct terms. 14 percent of the parents chose the teaching profession for

their sons and daughters. It is significant that the majority chose practical occupations, the direct application of which to the service of the community is apparent.

The experiment at Namutamba broadened to include four further schools in the area. It became apparent that only if the various counselling services in agriculture, medical care and community development are included in the overall programme can the willingness to learn be turned to good use, the real needs be fulfilled and the resources needed, above all for the practical subjects, be procured. Such counselling services were established initially at local level and later at district level. Finally, after the decision taken in 1975 to extend the project step by step over the entire country, it became essential to subject them to interministerial coordination under the direction of a high-ranking official coordinator. The National Curriculum Centre undertook to elaborate che syllabi.

The Namutamba Project stood to succeed if it could implement its experimental stage and orient its aims towards its immediate surroundings. Herein lay too the transparency of the project and its direct practical approach. It was possible not only to achieve results within a relatively short time but also—this being perhaps more important—to let the results be seen. A reform of the primary school curriculum proceeded in a pragmatic and inofficious way to become rural development.

Nonetheless, typical difficulties were experienced during the experimental stage. Although the curriculum was modified, it was not possible to adapt the national primary school leaving examination to suit the amended curriculum. The teaching staff were at first ill prepared for the difficult task of developing curricula at local level. Moreover, the turnover rate among teaching staff was too high.

It has been decided that the project should be extended, but to date no comprehensive evaluation has been undertaken of the Namutamba project. A number of questions remain unanswered. To which extent have agricultural methods in fact improved? Has real progress been achieved as regards housing construction and the standard of living? To which extent has craftsmanship improved? A systematic investigation of what became of the former pupils of the experimental school still remains to be made. Is there a market in the immediate neighbourhood for the skills learned? To which extent do the schools depend on the support of a teacher training institution? Should future experiments have a District Farm Institute as their subject?

The Namutamba Project benefited from its own transparency. If this initiative is to be extended, albeit step by step, throughout the country, major difficulties of a planning, organizational, and pedagogical nature will arise. One may not overlook the danger that the positive beginning may meet its doom in recognized known difficulties. A reform of the primary education system is impossible unless accompanied by a concurrent and similar reform of the secondary education system. Unforeseeable repercussions will make themselves felt up to and including the tertiary sector.

In the last analysis, can a poor country such as Uganda afford to extend a practice-oriented, environment-oriented educational system? Such a system not only calls for basic teaching materials but also depends on constant practical exercises for which resources are required, e.g. land, cattle, seeds, artificial fertilizers, equipment. This new form of basic education is certainly not less costly than the traditional classroom instruction with chalk and primer.

The major problems of coordination still remain to be solved in Uganda. The individual ministries insist on maintaining their independence. The concept of competition still thrives in the various organizations and centres of adult education. At the national level authorities and committees are relatively easily formed but if they receive no decision-making powers, they soon degenerate into discussion circles and debating clubs.

That which proved to be worthwhile during the experimental period can be transposed into a large-scale programme of reform only after fundamental preparation work.

2. The Kwamsisi Community Education Centre (Tanzania)

Tanzanian society considers itself to be a society of learning, within which the school serves to provide a direct preparation for life. The political priorities prevailing in Tanzania favour an environment-oriented basic education system serving to assist the population and more particularly the rural population to improve their living conditions. The traditional primary school should develop gradually into a community education centre for children, juveniles, and adults. Eight such community education centres are operating to date at an experimental level. The Kwamsisi centre is one of these. It is situated in the Tanga region in the northwest of Tanzania, 15 km from Korogwe, and lies within the catchment area of the Korogwe teacher training centre which, as was the case of the Namutamba College, provides the experiment with pedagogic support. There is also a secondary school and a further education centre for nurses in the district. The equipment for the community education centre was provided by UNICEF. UNESCO and DANIDA also participated in the implementation of the project which was started in 1968.

The first task was the development of a curriculum which would impart the knowledge, ideals and skills required for the development of the traditional economic sector. Ways had to be found to involve the entire village in a learning process which was to take the school as its point of departure. Other development projects and all the existing adult education centres would have an appropriate contribution to make to the project, whilst the curriculum had to be oriented to comply with the aims of existing development projects and had to include them in the school instruction.

Those responsible for the project endeavoured from the outset to involve the inhabitants of the village in decision-making as to the nature of the needs-oriented learning goals to be set. During the course of a number of meetings the UNESCO counsellor and the experts from the teacher training institution consulted with teachers and village inhabitants, principally by way of the members of the Community Education Committee.[1/] Discussions revealed that instruction was required primarily in the fields of functional literacy, health care, water supply, and agriculture (especially cash crops) as well as in the social, cultural and political fields.

The national curriculum was accordingly adapted to conform with local circumstances. Only arithmetic, English, and Kisuaheli remained unmodified. Political education and community studies (natural sciences, domestic science, history, and geography) were modified to suit local circumstances. Agriculture, health care, self-help, and instruction in traditional culture were added as integral parts of the curriculum.

There follows a brief survey of the content of the individual subjects which formerly did not constitute an integral part of the national curriculum and which therefore well illustrate the particularities of a Tanzanian community education centre.

1/ In the Ujamaa villages of Tanzania much responsibility is accorded to the committees, which are competent respectively for matters relating to finance and planning works, trade and commerce, education and defence.

	Political education	Self-help	Health care
Adults	seminars on communal work seminars on development projects in the district	communal field work: growing of food crops for own consumption cultivation of an experimental field with cash crops well boring functional literacy	importance of health services reasons underlying malnutrition prevention of illness preparation of drinking water
Juveniles	same as for adults	arable cultivation in cooperation with adults crafts: setting up workshop for manufacture of furniture	same as for adults
Children	history of the village initiation to communal work with village inhabitants	experiments in growing cotton and soybeans initiation to communal field work with adults and juveniles crafts: basketry, pottery communal work to expand the school	personal hygiene types and use of foodstuffs prevention of illness cleanliness in the village

In no way did children, juveniles, and adults have the same material to learn. Instruction was given to adults separately. They received additional instruction from staff members of the various services (agriculture, medical services, etc.) and were drawn into the national radio campaign on subjects such as health, nutrition, literacy, and political education.

For schoolchildren the national primary school curriculum was retained in principle in order not to hinder their mobility and advancement to the secondary school system. In order to guarantee primary education of equal value and at the same time avoid giving the impression of this being a second rate education for children from rural areas (dual school system), provision was made for classroom instruction to be continued in full; i.e. none of it was to be sacrificed in favour of the other activities. The instruction methods had to be adapted to better suit the local circumstances and the wider curriculum.

It was here that the first difficulties arose. In order to maintain the uniformity of the national education system, the subjects which were of particular interest as regards the development of the community had to be taught as additional subjects. The problem of examinations remained unsolved. The teaching staff were inadequately prepared for the numerous additional subjects. Coordinating the various services which were already taking part in the normal class instruction proved to be difficult, and furthermore, their advice was not sought in time. The problem of the numerous overtime hours arose. It was only after many hours of consultation that a practicable division of work was found: the school assumed responsibility for the agricultural experiments whilst the community concentrated its efforts on dealing with that which was produced in the experiments. Juveniles represented a particularly difficult target group. It proved impossible to group them into class

groups. The adults who had offered to teach them handicrafts later retracted their offer in favour of working for their own ends. New people moved into the village who had not yet come to terms with the ideals of socialism. The communal Shamba (field) had to be redivided once again. Whereas formerly the adults took as much interest in teaching as in communal work in the field (for which purpose they were accordingly released), a tendency towards selfishness now became manifest: they preferred to work on their own land. It proved impossible to market the soybeans and so this experiment was abandoned. It was impossible to duplicate the teaching materials which had been provided by the neighbouring teacher training institution, and teacher's handbooks and primers for adults were not available in sufficient number. If the overall concept of a community education centre lends itself to a Ujamaa village, it can be realized only if it is accompanied by marked circumstantial changes, among others in the economic and social spheres.

Nonetheless, the project cannot be termed a failure. Diseases such as bilharzia and scabies were eradicated and nutritional deficiencies were remedied. The staff of the governmental health services became more trusted than the medicine man. The village inhabitants learned to use fertilizers and to cultivate cotton as a source of income in addition to cattle-breeding. The proportion of cattle owners rose from 10 percent to 60 percent. The school was extended. A day centre for young children was set up so that schoolgirls no longer had to leave school prematurely if they became mothers. School attendance reached 100 percent of all children of school age. A football pitch was laid out. Considerable success was met with as regards retaining the school leavers in the village.

Finally, it can be assumed that the school in Kwamsisi did succeed in becoming integrated into the community, even if this was not entirely achieved. Whether and to which extent the project can succeed in the context of changing economic and social circumstances depends on the extent to which it can develop and, where necessary, apply alternative strategies. The Tanzanian authorities have in no way rejected such a proposal.

One must not overlook the fact that the purpose of an experimental project and, by extension, of a case study also includes correcting the weak points in a concept. In this respect the case study prepared in Kenya met with particular success.

3. The Kenyan Special Rural Development Programme —Results in the Area of Vihiga and Hamisi

In Kenya the shortcomings of traditional education became evident in the 1960s. From 1963 to 1965 the percentage of those who had a chance of attending a higher school decreased from 20 to 16 percent. Fewer and fewer primary school leavers were able to find employment in the urban sector. Since 1966 the Church and state authorities have been dealing intensively with the problem of youth unemployment. The Kericho Conference recommended to pay more attention to the development of rural areas and to accord priority to the development of environment-oriented education programmes, particularly in the sphere of adult education.

In 1967 the Kenyan government decided to implement pilot programmes for the rural development in some divisions of the country. Following preparatory investigations in 1970/71, six areas were selected, among them the densely populated, climatically agreeable and fertile area near lake Victoria (western province). The pilot programmes were supported by western donor countries (U.S.A.I.D.) and experts. The projects were concentrated on farming, animal husbandry, small industry, health care, hygiene, and the establishment of cooperatives and social services. It was the aim of the programme to develop strategies to increase production and income and thus improve the standard of living in rural areas. Procedures for autonomous rural development were to be developed which were in principle applicable in other areas as well. In the project area near Lake Victoria the following activities were of main importance: cultivation of maize, vegetables and tea; use of artificial fertilizer; animal husbandry; rural small industry; polytechnical villages; road construction; water catchment; and the employment of consulting services in the sectors of health care, agriculture, cooperatives, etc.

Despite good development-oriented approaches, the pilot programme did not have the anticipated success. The objectives of the programme were not defined precisely enough. Too many things were tackled at the same time. Instead of developing strategies, the persons concerned were interested in rapid agricultural success. Five years elapsed between conception (1966) and realization of the pilot programme (1971). During that time the initiators of the programme (the Kericho Conference was dominated by foreign experts who had worked in East Africa for a long time) had already left the country; in their stead U.S.A.I.D. assigned agricultural experts from Florida University who were unfamiliar with local conditions. The period between 1966 and 1971 had not been used for thorough preparatory studies. The tasks which the programme had set itself were not new; still nobody had thought about a curriculum for the subject field "rural development." The farmers did not participate in the development of the programme nor in the identification of the learning needs and objectives. They were reduced to passiveness, while state planners and foreign experts developed a programme "for them." The programme administrators took over existing educational programmes unscrupulously on the assumption that a programme could not be bad which had been approved for others. The staff members of the various services were unqualified and overworked. One person had to deal with ca 8,000 households. Although a coordinator was appointed and a coordinating committee established, integration of all participants was lacking. The problem involved not a complete reorganization of the government and a dissolution of ministerial competences but rather such things as organizing regular discussions for all concerned with the project or inducing different staff members to use the same landrover when they visited one group of farmers at the same time.

Finally, the pilot programme, which was based on the question as to what happens to primary school leavers, neglected the school aspect completely; it turned out to be a classical adult education programme which ignored school completely and in which schools were hardly interested. Not even the Chavakali Secondary School, which had become known in Kenya because it had successfully integrated agriculture into the curriculum, was consulted, although it is located in Vihiga. In this case, too, school and non-school programmes were implemented without coordination, to the detriment of those concerned.

4. The Chiwanda Farm Project (Tanzania)

The area of Chiwanda comprises five villages in southeast Tanzania on Lake Nyasa, near the Mozambique border (Ruvuma region). The number of inhabitants is 8,454 and the area covers 160 square miles. All villages have primary schools, although only two are fully completed. Water is available. Up to the beginning of the project subsistence farming was the rule. Root crop cultivation included the cultivation of maize, cassava, and peanuts. The farmers raised cattle and goats.

The project is a rural development project and aims at providing help for self-help. It came into existence in 1975 in the wake of the national radio campaign on nutrition. The farmers united to form radio groups, discussed what they had listened to, and tried to apply it to their situation. The groups defined their learning needs as follows:

- knowledge on foodstuffs and a balanced diet
- improved farming methods
- knowledge on child care
- reading, writing, arithmetic
- simple techniques of project planning and progress control.

The project was founded because the farmers themselves realized that radio instruction alone would not be enough to correct the lack of protein in their diet. The Institute for Adult Education in Dar es Salaam, particularly its branch in Songea, was asked to cooperate. A planning team was established which consisted of the leaders and secretaries of the five villages, representatives of TANU (unity party of Tanzania), representatives of the national women's association, and experts in agriculture, animal husbandry, health care, cooperatives, and education. It

is not clear from the study whether or not the directors of the schools were on the planning team. They played an important role, however, in identifying learning needs and learning targets. The project was subsidized by SIDA and UNESCO. The total project budget was estimated at 65,000 Tanzanian shillings (ca DM 20,000).

Preparatory studies showed that the protein shortage could be overcome by introducing new types of fruit (pineapple and oranges), introducing chicken breeding, and overcoming certain food taboos (for example, pregnant women are not allowed to eat eggs or beef). The project was discussed during a three-day seminar in which the village inhabitants were represented by the village leaders, the executive committees of the villages, and by one hundred so-called ten cell leaders.[1/] Since all concerned could not participate in planning, the planning process was to be rendered as democratic as possible. It was evident that only the farmers themselves could tailor the overall plan precisely according to their own needs, since it was they who had to test the new plants and cultivation techniques. Particularly in the area of Chiwanda various well-meant efforts had failed which aimed at encouraging the farmers to initiate the cultivation of grapes and ploughing by means of oxen. In addition, mill installations were lying idle. The new project could be successful only if, at the very least, the "multipliers" were integrated in the decision-making process and thus assigned responsibility. In this first seminar and also in the planning committee it was possible to reach agreement as regards cooperation and division of labour. It was clear that a large number of ministries were involved at least indirectly, owing to the joint assignment of their experts. Thus coordinating

---

1/ Tanzanian democracy is structured as follows: ten cell, ward, division, district, region, nation.

problems which are always particularly difficult arose, problems which could, however, be solved through concentration on a specific task and the shifting of necessary decisions to the local level. For the "experts" this meant that they were there not to take decision "for others" but rather to act as catalyzers, a role which was difficult for some of them to play and which was at first not accepted by the farmers, who were used to acting on instruction.

After it was guaranteed that the project idea was supported by those directly affected, the farmers were taught simple planning techniques. Then various seminars were held in which the entire population took part. The cultivation of oranges, pineapple, and vegetables was practised, advice on chicken breeding and on how to overcome food taboos was given, and methods of preparing tasty meals using eggs, fruits, and vegetables as ingredients were taught. The seminars took place whenever a step forward was made and the corresponding resources were available. The report states succinctly that only after the first egg was laid could the corresponding education programme be realized.

Up to now the project seems to have fulfilled the hopes of all concerned: orange trees are blooming, pineapples are growing, and the chickens are laying eggs. The future of the project depends on whether or not it will be possible to produce at favourable prices for the market and whether or not, in view of the transport problems, a market will develop in the immediate surroundings.

The project has been successful so far; it has been operating now for little more than a year. It was successful because it involved only a small area, because the initiative was taken by those directly affected, and because it was possible to shift the decision-making process to the grass-roots level, thus overcoming coordinating problems

which otherwise would have been taken to a higher instance (where difficulties in connection with competences usually arise). The objectives were concrete and the results were positive. The method was simple: the traditional form of the palaver was used in order to reach a decision or to present new techniques which were then practised in concrete productive work. The school was not neglected but it does not appear to have played an important role. The case study did not confirm the assumption that a better general education on the part of the participants would mean increased openmindedness or efficiency: the differences between farmers with a relatively good education and those with little or no education were not significant.

The planning team did not make any effort to design a regular curriculum. The procedure concentrated on individual cases and needs. The actual practice approach prevailed and was relatively easy to initiate. Projects of this type can be successful as long as they are small and uncomplicated. Problems arise when they are implemented on a broader scale.

The Chiwanda Project also shows, however, that even at local level success is not easy to achieve. The costs (ca DM 20,000) were not too high, but the work involved, the will to learn from experience and to overcome traditional role behaviour, and the pedagogic efforts were enormous in relation to the results. These results were of importance to those concerned, but within the overall context of the development of a whole country they remain negligible. In general only one staff member of the agricultural service and perhaps one health officer can be assigned to such a project, and this will automatically be reflected in the results.

In the last analysis the question as to how important 8,000 farmers are and how much work is expended for them is a political one.

CASE STUDIES AND AUTHORS

1) CASE STUDY ON THE DETERMINATION OF LEARNING NEEDS IN RURAL AREAS: THE CHIWANDA FARMER EDUCATION PROJECT

by

The Institute of Adult Education, Dar es Salaam

Case Study Team:

M.J. Kinunda

Y.K.C. Masisi

A.P.W. Mmalavi

2) LEARNING NEEDS IN RURAL AREAS. CASE STUDY OF NAMUTAMBA PROJECT, UGANDA

by

The Uganda Case Study Team:

A.M.K. Bagunywa

D.S. Kiyimba

S.M. Muwonge

D.N. Sentamu

C. Kabuga

3) LEARNING NEEDS IN RURAL AREAS. A CASE STUDY OF VIHIGA AND HAMISI DIVISIONS: THE SPECIAL RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

prepared by

The Kenya Case Study Team:

G.P. Oluoch

T. Mulusa

A.O. Waka

E.M. Mugiri

G.S. Baderia

4) KWAMSISI COMMUNITY SCHOOL PROJECT. A CASE STUDY ON LEARNING NEEDS IN RURAL AREAS.

by

Institute of Education, Dar es Salaam

Case Study Team:

M.I. Kinunda

G.L. Mizambwa

K.A. Hassan

BASIC EDUCATION BIBLIOGRAPHY

A SURVEY OF PUBLICATIONS AVAILABLE AT THE EDUCATION AND SCIENCE LIBRARY OF THE GERMAN FOUNDATION FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

COMPILED BY

ANNEMARIE WELZEL

Page 46 blank.

Aeth, Richard d': Education and Development in the Third World.
Lexington,Mass.: Heath; Lexington Books 1975.
VII+127 S.,bibliogr.Hinw.,Bibliogr.S.119-126

Ahmed, Manzoor/ Coombs, Philip H.(Hrsg.): Education for Rural Development.Case Studies for Planners.
New York: International Council for Educational Development; New York (ua.): Praeger 1975.
XXXIII+661 S.,Reg.,Tab. (II b - 74)

Ahmed, Manzoor: The school of social life. Nonformal education can only give the best of itself within a politico-institutional framework that supports it instead of neutralizing it
in: CERES. Rom. July-August 1977, S.49-52.

Alles, Jinapala: Learning in Childhood: What are the Basics? - especially in the Context of Development. A Comment on an Aspect of the current Debate on Learning Priorities.
Paris: Unesco 1976. 12 S.,graph.Darst.,Bibliogr.S.11-12
(Joint UNESCO-UNICEF Programme of Educational Assistance);(Notes, Comments.7.) (II b - 100)

Alles, J.; Sharpe, R.S.: Report of the Mission on Basic Education to Agencies Participating in the Bellagio Education Meetings. Working Draft (for the IIEP/SIDA-Seminar on "Planning problems in rural education" 13-17 Oct. 1975.)
Paris:IIEP 1975. 46 S. (IIEP/S36/20A)
(Ordner:IIEP/SIDA-Seminar 1975 - IIb)

Bauer, Michael: Ergebnisbericht der zweiten Klausurtagung zur Erarbeitung von Prinzipien und Kriterien für die Förderung der funktionalen Grunderziehung in Entwicklungsländern , vom 28.2. bis 1.3. 1974 in Bonn.
Bonn: DSE1974. 82 S. (AM:Grunderziehung)
(DOK 742 B/IIA - E 1/74)

Bergmann, Herbert; Bude, Udo: A survey of Primary Schools and their Communities for general education policy-making: The case of two provinces in Cameroon
in: Internationale Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft XXIII/1977/1, S. 3-34.

Bude,Udo;Supplitt,Gerlinde(Bearb.): Work-oriented Education for Africa. International Conference, 15 to 21 October 1972,Berlin. Conference Report.
Berlin 1973. IX+416 S.,Bild.,Tab.,bibliogr.Hinw.
(DOK 657 A/a - IIA-IT 1/72) (AF II b - 14)

page 48 blank

Blaug, Mark: Economics of Education in Developing Countries: Current Trends and New Priorities. The Edding Memorial Lecture, Max-Planck-Institute für Bildungsforschung, September 14, 1977.
[Berlin] 1977. 15 S. [Unveröffentl. Ms.]

Callaway, Archibald: Educating Africa's Youth for rural Development.
o.O. Bernard van Leer Foundation 1973. 95 S., Bild., Tab.
(AF II Db-17)

Churchill, Stacy: The Peruvian Model of Innovation: The Reform of basic Education. Study prepared for the International Educational Reporting Service.
Paris: Unesco Pr.; Geneva: IBE 1976. 55 S., graph. Darst., Tab., Bibliogr. S. 53-55.
(Experiments and Innovations in Education. 22.)
(PER II Ab - 11)

Colclough, Christopher: Basic Education - Samson or Delilah?
in: Convergence. Toronto. Vol. 9. 1976. No. 2, S. 48-63.

Colclough, Chr.; Hallak, Jacques: Some issues in rural EDUCATION: equity, efficiency and employment
in: Prospects. Vol. 6. 1976. No. 4, S. 501-525.
s. auch: (IIEP-Seminar Paper. 24.) (II b - 98)

Coombs, Philip H. (u.a.): Attacking Rural Poverty. How Nonformal Education can help. A Research Report for the World Bank, prepared by the ICED.
Baltimore, London: Johns Hopkins Univ. Pr. 1974.
XVI+292 S., graph. Darst., Tab., bibliogr. Hinw., Bibliogr. S. 273-279, Reg. (II b - 63)

Coombs, Philip H. (u.a.): New Paths to Learning for Rural Children and Youth. Nonformal Education for Rural Development.
New York: ICED 1973. X+133 S., Tab., Reg., bibliogr. Hinw.
(II A1 - 87)

Coverdale, G.M.: Planning Education to Rural Development.
Paris: IIEP 1974. 37 S.
(Fundamentals of Educational Planning. 21.)
(II A1 - 89)

Dave, R.H.: Determination of Learning Needs in Rural Areas. A general design for case studies.
Paris: IIEP 1976. 15 S.
(IIEP"Determination of Learning Needs in Rural Areas"- Seminar 29 Nov.-3 Dec. 1976/Paper IIEP/S39/1)
(Ordner:IIEP-Seminar IIb)

---: Foundations of Lifelong Education.
Hamburg: Unesco Institute for Education;
Oxford,New York,Toronto: Pergamon Pr. 1976.
VI+382 S.,bibliogr.Hinw. (II Db - 106)

Dawson, Allan Cooper: Towards the practical implementation of life-long education in rural areas.
Paris: IIEP 1976. 56 S.,Tab.,graph.Darst.,
Bibliogr.S. 54-56.
(IIEP occasional papers.44.)

DSE: The Support of Basic Education in Developing Countries.
Working Draft (for the) IIEP/SIDA-Seminar:"Planning Problems in Rural Education".
Paris: IIEP 1975. 8 S. (IIEP/S36/14A)
(Ordner: IIEP/SIDA-Seminar 1975-IIb

Esser, Klaus; Musto, Stefan A.: Programmhilfe zur Förderung der funktionalen Grunderziehung in Entwicklungsländern.
Berlin: Deutsches Institut für Entwicklungspolitik
1973. 151 S.,Tab.,bibliogr.Hinw.,Bibliogr.
S.146-151. (II A1 - 76)

FAO; ILO; UNESCO: Training for Agriculture and Rural Development.
Rome 1975. VIII+147 S.,Bild.,bibliogr.Hinw.
(II F1 - 11)

Faure, Edgar (u.a.): Wie wir leben lernen. Der UNESCO-Bericht über Ziele und Zukunft unserer Erziehungsprogramme.
[Orig.]: Apprendre à être. Paris: Unesco 1972.
Reinbek b. Hamburg: Rowohlt Taschenbuchverl. 1973.
377 S.,Tab.
(rororo-sachbuch.680/6835) (II b - 56d)

Foster, Philip; Sheffield, James R. (Hrsg.): Education and Rural Development.
London: Evans Brothers 1973. XIV+417 S.,graph. Darst.,Tab.,bibliogr.Hinw.
(The World Year Book of Education.1974). (II b - 62)

Furter,Pierre: Some problems in Planning Adult Education.
Paris: IIEP 1973. III+37 S.,graph.Darst.,bibliogr.Hinw.
(The Fundamentals of Educational Planning:
Lecture-Discussion Series.59.) (II Db -103)

Griffiths, V.L.: The problems of rural education.
Paris: IIEP 1968. 37 S.
(Fundamentals of educational planning.7.) (II Ab-12)

Gunter, Jonathan; Theroux,James: Developing mass audiences for educational broadcasting: two approaches
in: Prospects.Paris. Vol.7.1977.No.2,S.288-298.

Harman, David: Community Fundamental Education. A Nonformal Educational Strategy for Development.
Lexington,Mass.: Heath 1974. IX+174 S.,bibliogr.Hinw.,
Bibliogr.S.143-169.(Lexington Books)
(II b-82)

Hawes, H.W.R.: Lifelong Education. Schools and Curricula in Developing Countries. Report of an International Seminar,Hamburg, 9-13 December 1974.
Bonn: DSE; Hamburg: Unesco Institute for Education 1975.
146 S.,Bibliogr.S. 144-146
(uie monographs.4.) (II Db - 81)

---: Planning the primary School Curriculum in Developing Countries.
Paris: IIEP 1972. 51 S.
(Fundamentals of Educational Planning.17.)
(II A1-94e)

IBRD: Education. Sector working paper.
Washington,D.C. 1974. II+73 S.,Tab. (IIb - 57 e/74)

---: Rural Development.
Washington,D.C. 1975. 89 S.,Tab.
(Sector Policy Paper) (IV B1 - 54)

International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods: Adult Basic Education. 1.2.
Tehran 1973.
(Literacy Discussion. 4(1973)1/2+3)
(VST II Db - 1 + II Db - 65)

Kassam, Yusuf O.: Formal and non-formal education and social justice
in: Prospects. Paris. Vol.7.1977.No.2,S.244-250.

King, Kenneth: Minimum learning needs for the Third World: new panacea or new problems?
in: Prospects. Vol.6.1976. No.1,S. 39-56.

King, K.; Postlethwaite, T.N.: Curriculum Development for Basic Education in Rural Areas. Working Draft. Paris: IIEP 1975. 34 S. (IIEP/S36/6A)
(Ordner:IIEP/SIDA Seminar 1975 IIb)

Kloss,Heinz(Hrsg.): Grunderziehung Hilfe für Entwicklungsländer.Berichte im Auftrag der deutschen Unesco-Kommission.
Stuttgart: Klett 1960. 135 S. (II C1 - 2)

Kordes, Hagen: Zur Ruralisierung der Grunderziehung in West-Afrika. Konfligierende Begründungszusammenhänge.
Bonn-Bad Godesberg: Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung Forschungsinst. 1975. S. 129-160,Tab., Bibliogr.S. 151-155
(Vierteljahresberichte.Sonderdr. 60/1975)
(WAF II b - 3)

Lema, A.A.: The Integration of Formal and Non-Formal Education
in: Education in Eastern Africa.Nairobi. Vol.6.1976.No.2, S. 99-111.

Lewy, Arieh: Planning the School Curriculum.
Paris: IIEP 1977. 82 S.,graph.Darst.,Tab., Bibliogr.S.81-82.
(Fundamentals of Educational Planning.23.)(II B3-59)

Lowe, John: The Education of Adults: A World Perspective.
Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education; Paris: Unesco Pr. 1975. 229 S.,bibliogr.Hinw., Bibliogr.S. 219-220, Reg. (II Db-86)

Malassis, L.: Agriculture and the Development Process. Tentative Guidelines for Teaching.
Paris: Unesco Pr. 1975. 284 S.,graph.Darst.,Reg.,Tab. bibliogr.Hinw.,Bibliogr.S. 281-282
(Educational and rural Development.1.) (II b - 86)

Malassis, Louis: The Rural World.Education and Development. London: Croom Helm; Paris: Unesco 1976. 127 S. (II b - 93)

Mason, Horace: Fundamental education and functional literacy-problems and possibilities
in: Convergence.Toronto. Vol.6.1973.Nos.3/4, S. 55-63.

McClymont, G.L.: Formal Education and Rural Development Rome : FAO 1975. V+23 S. (II Cb-35)

Müller, Josef(Hrsg.): Functional Literacy in the Context of Adult Education. International Symposium,15 to 25 August 1973, Berlin(West). Final Report. Bonn: DSE; Tehran: IIALM; Bonn: DVV 1974. V+431 S.,Tab.,bibliogr.Hinw., Bibliogr.S. 415-431
(DOK 700 A/a IIA-IT 3/73) (II A3 - 24)

Naik, J.P.: Elementary Education in India. A Promise to keep.
Bombay: Allied Publ. 1976. 98 S.,Tab.,Reg.
(Alternatives in Development: Education)
(IND II b - 6)

Norbye, Ole David Koht: Is Universal Primary Education in Developing Countries a Realistic Target?
Bergen: Chr. Michelsen Institute.Department ofHumanities.Development Economics Research and Advisory Project 1970. 17 S.,Tab.,Anh. (II b - 102)

Osterloh, Karl-Heinz: Traditionelle Lernweisen und europäischer Bildungstransfer. Zur Begründung einer adaptierten Pädagogik in den Entwicklungsländern
in: Neue Sammlung. Göttingen. Jg 17.Mai/Juni 1977. H. 3, S. 219-236.

Perraton, Hilary: Learning about anything
in: Prospects. Vol.7. 1977. No. 2, S. 255-262.

Phillips, Herbert Moore: Basic Education - A World Challenge. Measures and Innovations for Children and Youth in Developing Countries.
London (u.a.): Wiley 1975. 259 S.,graph.Darst.,Reg., Tab.,bibliogr.Hinw. (IIb-84)

Phillips, Herbert Moore: Educational Cooperation between Developed and Developing Countries.
New York, Washington,London: Praeger 1976.
XVIII+331 S.,Tab.,bibliogr.Hinw.,Bibliogr.
S.323-331. (IV C3-47)

---: What is meant by Basic Education. Working Draft.
Paris: IIEP 1975. 26 S.
(Ordner: IIEP/SIDA-Seminar 1975...IIb)

Platt, William J.: Toward initial learning systems
in: Convergence. Toronto. Vol.9. 1976.No.1,S.9-18.

Ponsioen, J.A.: Educational Innovations in Africa: Policies and Administration.
The Hague: Institute of Social Studies 1972. 262 S.
(AF II C1 - 2)

Song Bok Joo: A Study of the Qualification and Structure of teaching Forces in the first Level of Education of some selected Countries.
Paris: IIEP 1969. I+36 S.,Bild.,Tab.,Bibliogr.S.36
(IIEP Occasional Papers.13.) (II F6 - 8)

Tansania.Ministry of Education; ILO; UNESCO; UNICEF.
Eastern Africa Regional Office: The Introduction of Technology in Basic Education. Phase 2: The Tanzania Workshop.
Nairobi 1976. o.Pag.,Tab. (TAN II b -14)

Townsend Coles, Edwin K.: Adult education in Developing Countries.
Oxford, New York usw.]: Pergamon Press.
2. [völlig neu bearb.] Aufl. 1977. XVIII+199 S.,Tab.,
Bibliogr.S. 195-196

UNESCO; UNICEF: Basic Education in Eastern Africa. Report on a Seminar, Nairobi, Kenya, 19-23 August,22-26 Oct. 1974.
[Paris um 1975.] 175 S.,Tab.,bibliogr.Hinw.
(OAF II Cb - 2)

UNESCO; ECA; OAU: Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States, Lagos (Nigeria), 27 January-4 February 1976. Final Report.
Paris 1976. 98 S. (AF II A1 - 10e)

UNESCO: Education in a Rural Environment.
Paris 1974. 64 S.,bibliogr.Hinw.,Bibliogr.S.61-64
(Education and Rural Development.2.) (II Bb - 47)

---: Fundamental Education. A Description and Programme.
Paris 1949. 84 S.,Bild.
(Monographs in Fundamental Education.1.) (II A1-100)

---: Meeting of Experts on the Basic Cycle of Study.
(Paris, Unesco House, 24-29 June 1974). Final Report.
Paris 1974. 9 S. (ED-74/CONF.622/5)

---: New Horizons at Tzentzenhuaro. One Year of Work at a Fundamental Education Centre for Latin America.
Paris 1953. 33 S.,Bild. (LAM II Ab - 5)

UNESCO.Regional Office for Education in Asia: Adult Literacy Programmes. Mobile Regional Field Operational Seminar 14 Nov - 1 Dec 1976 Final Report.
Bangkok 1977. 69 S. (AS II A3 - 3)

---: First Level of Education in the Asian Region.
Bangkok 1973. LX+265+XLIII S.,Tab.,Bibliogr.S.I-XLII
(bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia.14.) (AS II C1 - 4)

---: Lifelong Education: The Curriculum and Basic Learning Needs. Regional Seminar, Chiangmai, Thailand, 7-15 June 1976. Final Report.
Bangkok 1976. 32 S. (AS II Db - 4)

---;Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development; Korean Educational Development Institute.Seoul
Science in Basic Functional Education: Philosophy, Approaches, Methods and Materials. Report of a Preparatory Working Group Meeting(Seoul,Rep. of Korea, 7-12 July 1975).
Bangkok 1975. 49 S.,graph.Darst.
(Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development) (AS II Ab - 7)

White, Robert: An Alternative Pattern of basic Education: Radio Santa Maria.
Geneva: International Bureau of Education; Paris: Unesco; Hamburg: Unesco Institute for Education 1976.
Paris: Unesco Pr. 1976. 122 S.,Tab.,Bibliogr.S.103-104.
(Experiments and Innovations in Education.30).
(DOR II B7 - 1)